Evaluation of Reference Evapotranspiration Models for a Semiarid Environment Using Lysimeter Measurements

B. Bakhtiari, N. Ghahreman*, A. M. Liaghat, and G. Hoogenboom

ABSTRACT

An accurate determination of evapotranspiration is required for many studies that involve estimation of the water balance. One methodology is the use of lysimeters. Considering the semiarid climate of Kerman Province, in southeastern parts of Iran, the only operating electronic weighing lysimeter in the country was used for calculating daily ET₀ from April 2004 to March 2005 in three different periods, i.e. the entire year, and high and low evaporative demands periods. The measured error was equal to 1 kg mass, which is equivalent to 0.14 mm of water in the field. An automated weather station was used that provided 10-min recordings of the weather data to be used for predicting daily ET₀ with models. The lysimeter was installed in proximity of the automated weather station and both were located in a field with grass cover. The lysimetric data were used for the evaluation of six grass evapotranspiration models, including FAO-56 Penman–Monteith, Penman-Kimberly 1996, FAO-24 Blaney-Criddle, FAO-24 Radiation, Makkink, and Hargreaves-Samani. The root mean square error (RMSE) and index of agreement (d) were used for assessing prediction accuracy of different models. Results indicated that for the entire year period, the FAO-24 Radiation equation was the most precise method for calculating ET₀, with a RMSE of 1.63 mm day⁻¹ and a d-index of 0.78. During the high evaporative demand period (April to September 2004) the FAO-24 radiation equation was superior compared to the other methods for calculating ET₀ with a low RMSE value of 1.86 mm day⁻¹ and a d-index of 0.45. During the low evaporative demand period, again, FAO-24 radiation equation was superior compared to the other methods with RMSE of 1.30 mm day⁻¹ and d-index of 0.46. In all of the three periods, the Makkink method showed poor performance and can not be recommended for the region.

Keywords: Evapotranspiration, FAO-56 Penman–Monteith, FAO-24 Radiation, Hargreaves-Samani, Lysimeter.

INTRODUCTION

Reliable estimates on evapotranspiration (ET₀) from cropped surfaces are required for efficient irrigation management. With increasing pressure on water resources from competing sectors, great emphasis has been placed on water use efficiency in irrigated fields (Hatfield et al., 1996), particularly in semiarid environment irrigation projects. Three terms are normally used in describing evaporation and evapotranspiration: (1) Free water evaporation (E) is used for the amount of evaporation lost from an open water surface (Peterson et al., 1995),(2) Actual evapotranspiration (ETₐ) describes all the processes by which liquid water at or near the land surface becomes atmospheric water vapor under natural condition (Morton, 1983),(3) Potential evapotranspiration (ET₀) is water loss that will occur if there is no...
deficiency of water in the soil for use of vegetation at any time (Thornthwaite, 1944). Evapotranspiration (ET), the process by which water in its liquid state evaporates from the soils and plant surfaces to the atmosphere, is an important hydrological process. This term includes evaporation of water stored in the soil surface and plant surfaces, especially from leaves (Jensen et al., 1990). Referring to agricultural production, the measurement of ET is very important in arid and semiarid regions, where it is essential for determining crop water demand.

The quantification of ET is normally based on the determination of reference evapotranspiration (ETo). Reference ET is defined as ‘‘the rate of evapotranspiration from an extensive area of 0.08–0.15 m high, uniform, actively growing, green grass that completely shades the soil and is provided with unlimited water and nutrients’’ (Allen et al., 1994). More recently, Allen et al. (1998) elaborated on the concept of ETo, referring to an ideal 0.12 m high crop with a fixed surface resistance of 70 s m⁻¹ and an albedo of 0.23. Since the 1940s, numerous grass (ETo) or alfalfa reference (ETr) ET equations have been developed, resulting in confusion as to which equation to select in order to obtain the most accurate ETo estimates. Adding to the confusion is the fact that there can be subtle differences between multiple versions of the same basic equation, for example, the Penman equation (Itenfisu et al. 2000). Grass reference evapotranspiration (ETo) is widely used to estimate crop water use and water requirements by using appropriate crop coefficients, Kc. The crop coefficient is a dimensionless number that is multiplied by the ETo value to arrive at a crop ET (ETc) estimate; ETc = Kc ETo. Crop coefficients depend on several factors, including the crop, development stage, canopy cover and density, and soil moisture. In addition, the Kc is dependent upon the equation that is used to estimate ETo. Snyder and Pruitt (1992) suggested estimates of Kc for many crops, trees, and vines grown in California.
USA. The International Commission for Irrigation and Drainage (ICID) and the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) Expert Consultation on Revision of FAO methodologies for crop water requirements (Smith et al., 1991) recommended that the FAO-56 Penman-Monteith method be used as the standard method for estimating ET\textsubscript{o} (Allen et al., 1998). Jensen et al. (1990), Allen et al. (1994), and Hargreaves (1994) emphasized the need for a standard method. The FAO-56 Penman-Monteith equation was derived from the ASCE-Penman-Monteith (ASCE-PM) method (Allen, 1986; Allen et al., 1994, 1998) by assigning certain parameter values based on a specific reference surface (Itenfisu et al., 2000; Allen et al., 1998). Suleiman and Hoogenboom (2007) compared the Priestley-Taylor and FAO-56 Penman-Monteith for estimation of daily reference evapotranspiration for a humid climate. Their results showed that the use of FAO-56 Penman-Monteith for estimating ET would improve the irrigation efficiency in Georgia, especially for the mountainous and coastal areas.

Taking into account the semiarid climate of Kerman (southeast of Iran) and lack of adequate water resources, the objective of this study was to use average daily ET\textsubscript{o} values measured with an electronic weighing lysimeter to evaluate various equations being used to calculate reference evapotranspiration and select suitable models to estimate ET\textsubscript{o} in the study region.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

This study was conducted in the Iranian Academic Center for Education, Culture and Research (ACECR) Experimental Farm located at the University of Kerman (Latitude 30° 15' N; Longitude 56° 58' E; Elevation 1753.8 m above sea level). The climate is characterized as continental, with average temperatures of 5–6°C during the coldest month (January) and 30.2°C during the hottest month (July). The local climate can be characterized as semiarid based on Extended-DeMartonne climatic classification (Khalili, 1997). The summary of climatological normals for the period 1951-2003 is shown in Table 1.

The mean monthly air temperature and relative humidity, solar radiation measurements (R\textsubscript{s}), and the computed clear sky (R\textsubscript{so}) values are shown in Figure 1.

The experimental plot soil texture is sandy clay loam, with 55% sand, 24% silt and 23% clay. The soil has a pH of 7.8 and is poor in organic matter and total nitrogen. An automated meteorological station was

![Figure 1](image-url)  
**Figure 1.** a: Mean monthly air temperature (T\textsubscript{mean}) and mean monthly relative humidity (RH\textsubscript{mean}), b: solar radiation (R\textsubscript{s}) and computed clear sky radiation (R\textsubscript{so}) during the study period.
installed next to the lysimeter equipped with necessary sensors to measure the variables required for calculating reference evapotranspiration (ET<sub>o</sub>):

Air temperature at 2 m: Sensor specifications ranged from -30 to 80 °C; precision ±0.1 °C. Relative air humidity at 2 m: Sensor specifications ranged from 0 to 100%; ±0.5% precision. Net short wave radiation at 2 m: a pyranometer (Lambrecht GmbH, 16131 model) was installed. Sensor specifications are: Spectral range 0.305–2.8 µm; irradiation of 0-2000 W m<sup>-2</sup> and sensitivity 9-15 µV W<sup>-1</sup> m<sup>-2</sup>. Wind velocity at 2 m was measured by a very sensitive, cup anemometer designed for measuring very light wind of up to only 0.2 m s<sup>-1</sup>. Sensor specifications are: 0-40 m s<sup>-1</sup> range and ±0.2m s<sup>-1</sup> precision. Atmospheric pressure (P) and soil heat flux (G) were estimated using the methods recommended by Allen et al. (1998). From April 2004 to March 2005, daily average of air temperature, relative humidity, wind speed, and sunshine hours were calculated based on 10 minutes records.

In this region, accurate estimation of ET<sub>o</sub> and conservation of water is of prime importance for irrigation of agricultural lands. Therefore, a large electronic weighing lysimeter was built for estimating crop water requirement and for evaluation of the available equations for calculation of ET<sub>o</sub>. The lysimeter includes two tanks of 3.00 m in diameter, 1.75 m deep and 12.4 m<sup>3</sup> volume with approximate soil capacity of 19.5 metric tons each. The weighing mechanism for each tank is a set of three compression strain gage load cells (C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>2</sub>), which are fixed on 1.20 m height column above the floor. According to the specification of the load cells, the maximum possible weighing error may be about 0.01 percent of total mass, but the measured error was equal to 1 kg mass, which is equivalent to 0.14 mm of water (Barani and Khanjani, 2002). A cone shaped drainage system, filled with gravel and connected to a 100 mm pipe was mounted at the bottom of the tank. The depth of drained water was measured using volumetric method. The lysimeter was installed in the center of a 26 m × 26 m plot, which was uniformly covered with fescue (Festuca Lollium perenne) and surrounded by well watered clipped alfalfa. Fescue grown in the lysimeter was kept at a height of 0.10 to 0.15 m by weekly mowing. The experimental plot was irrigated by a sprinkler system. The continuous weighing lysimeter was connected to an electronic data recorder. Thus, a comparison could be made with the data obtained by using 10 minutes changes of the lysimeter weights. The data generated by the lysimeter were displayed on the screen and also stored in the data logger. A personal computer, located in the control room of the lysimeter station, was connected to the data acquisition unit. Software was installed for communication with the data logger for programming and data downloading. Those measurements of the lysimeter that were affected by irrigation, precipitation, and mowing were eliminated from the records. In this study, six ET<sub>o</sub> computing methods, which use grass as a reference crop, were evaluated. These methods include: FAO-56 Penman–Monteith, Penman-Kimberly 1996, FAO-24 Blaney–Criddle, FAO-24 Radiation, Makkink, and Hargreaves-Samani. Equations and are described as follows:

**FAO-56 Penman–Monteith**

The Penman–Monteith (PM) method is considered to be ‘physically based’, since it incorporates the effects of physiological and aerodynamic characteristics of the reference surface (Allen, et al., 1998). Several studies have shown the superiority of the PM method for a wide range of climatic conditions (Jensen et al., 1990; Irmak et al., 2003; Itenfisu et al., 2000). Therefore, the recent version of the FAO methodology for estimating crop water requirements (Allen et al., 1998) FAO-56, recommends the sole use of the PM method for ET<sub>o</sub> estimation for all climates. The FAO-56 approach defines the
reference crop evapotranspiration for a hypothetical crop with an assumed height of 0.12 m that has a surface resistance of 70 s m⁻¹ and an albedo of 0.23 (Allen et al., 1998). This closely resembles the evapotranspiration of an extended green grass surface with a uniform height that grows actively and is adequately watered (Allen et al., 1998). It is defined as:

\[
\text{ET}_o = \frac{0.408\Delta (R_{\text{e}} - G) + \gamma \frac{900}{T + 273} u_2 (e_o - e_s)}{\Delta + \gamma (1 + 0.34u_2)} \tag{1}
\]

Where \( ET_0 \) is the reference evapotranspiration (mm day⁻¹), \( R_{\text{e}} \): the net radiation at the crop surface (MJ m⁻² day⁻¹), \( G \): the soil heat flux density (MJ m⁻² day⁻¹), \( T \): the mean daily air temperature at a 2-m height (°C), \( u_2 \): the wind speed at a 2-m height (m s⁻¹), \( e_s \): the saturation vapour pressure (kPa), \( e_o - e_s \): the saturation vapour pressure deficit (kPa), \( \Delta \): the slope of the vapour pressure curve (kPa °C⁻¹) and \( \gamma \): the psychrometric constant (kPa °C⁻¹).

This equation uses standard climatologic records of solar radiation (net, short wave, or sunshine duration), minimum and maximum air temperature, humidity (preferably minimum and maximum relative humidity), and wind speed. To ensure the integrity of computations, the weather measurements should be made at 2 m (or converted to that height) above an extensive surface of green grass, shading the ground and not short of water. Standard methods are proposed by Allen et al. (1998) to compute the parameters of the FAO-PM equation (1) from the observed climatic variables.

**Penman-Kimberly 1996**

In 1996, Wright presented a variable wind function to use with the Penman-Kimberly equation for predicting \( ET_0 \). This form of the Penman-Kimberly 1982 with grass wind function is referred to as the Penman-Kimberly 1996. The Penman-Kimberly 1996 combination equation for daily values in MJ m⁻² is:

\[
\lambda ET_o = \frac{\Delta + \gamma}{\Delta + \gamma} (R_{\text{e}} - G) + \frac{\gamma}{\Delta + \gamma} 6.43(e_o - e_s) W_f \tag{2}
\]

where \( ET_0 \) is the reference evapotranspiration (mm day⁻¹), \( R_{\text{e}} \): the net radiation at the crop surface (MJ m⁻² day⁻¹), \( G \): the soil heat flux density (MJ m⁻² day⁻¹), \( e_o \): the saturation vapour pressure (kPa), \( e_o - e_s \): the saturation vapour pressure deficit (kPa), \( \Delta \): the slope of the vapour pressure curve (kPa °C⁻¹), \( \gamma \): the psychrometric constant (kPa °C⁻¹), and \( W_f \) is the wind function. The Penman-Kimberly 1996 \( ET_0 \) values were calculated using the wind function (Wright, 1996):

\[
W_f = a_w + b_w u_2 \tag{3}
\]

where \( u_2 \) is the wind speed at a height of 2 m (m s⁻¹), \( a_w \) and \( b_w \) are:

\[
a_w = 0.3 + 0.58 \exp \left\{ \frac{-(J - 170)^2}{45} \right\} \tag{4}
\]

\[
b_w = 0.32 + 0.54 \exp \left\{ \frac{-(J - 220)^2}{67} \right\} \tag{5}
\]

where \( J \) is the day of year.

**FAO-24 Blaney–Criddle**

The original Blaney–Criddle method (Blaney and Criddle, 1950) was modified by Doorenbos and Pruitt (1977) to improve the effect of climate on crop water requirements. This method for calculating \( ET_0 \) considers general levels of minimum relative humidity, wind speed and sunshine. The Blaney–Criddle method modified by FAO is as follows:

\[
ET_o = a + b f \tag{6}
\]

where \( ET_0 \) is reference evapotranspiration (mm day⁻¹); \( a \) and \( b \) are coefficients of the linear equation that relate \( ET_0 \) and \( f \). In this study the expressions proposed by Frevert et al. (1983) are used for calculating coefficients \( a \) and \( b \); to obtain a better precision in predicting \( ET_0 \), \( f \) is the Blaney–
Criddle factor (mm day\(^{-1}\)), which is expressed as:

\[ f = p(0.46T + 8.13) \]  

where \( p \) is the mean daily percentage of total annual daytime hours for given months and latitude; \( T \) is mean air temperature (\(^\circ\)C).

**FAO-24 Radiation**

The FAO-24 Radiation method was first introduced by Doorenbos and Pruitt (1977) as a modification of the Makkink (1957) method (Doorenbos and Pruitt 1977; Jensen et al., 1990). Originally it was recommended for this model to be used as a replacement for the Penman method (Jensen et al., 1990) when measured air temperature and solar radiation were available but wind and humidity data were unavailable or were of questionable quality (Doorenbos and Pruitt 1977; Jensen et al., 1990). However, this model performs much better with measured data (Jensen et al., 1990). The form of FAO-24 Radiation as defined by Jensen et al. (1990) is described as:

\[ \frac{\Delta}{\Delta + \gamma} R_s \left( \frac{\Delta}{\Delta + \gamma} \right) - 0.12 \]  

where \( ET_o \) is reference evapotranspiration (mm day\(^{-1}\)); \( a \) is -0.3 (mm day\(^{-1}\)); \( b \) is an adjustment factor that varies with the mean relative humidity and daytime wind speed calculated by equation 9; \( \Delta \) is the slope of the vapour pressure curve (kPa \(^{\circ}\)C\(^{-1}\)), \( \gamma \) is the psychrometric constant (kPa \(^{\circ}\)C\(^{-1}\)), \( R_s \) is solar radiation (MJ m\(^{-2}\) day\(^{-1}\)) and constant 2.45 is latent heat of vaporization at approximately 20 \(^{\circ}\)C.

**Makkink model**

The Makkink model was developed in the Netherlands as a modification of the Penman equation (Makkink, 1957) and has been used successfully in the US (Amatya et al., 1995). It can be considered as a simplified Priestley-Taylor formula, requiring, similar to Priestley-Taylor, only radiation and temperature as inputs. The difference is that, instead of using net radiation (\( R_n \)) and temperature, the Makkink formula uses incoming short-wave radiation (\( R_s \)) and temperature. Short-wave radiation can be easily obtained as, on the average, there is a constant ratio (\( \approx 40\% \)) between \( R_n \) and \( R_s \).

The Makkink formula is expressed as:

\[ ET_o = 0.61 \left( \frac{\Delta}{\Delta + \gamma} R_s \right) - 0.12 \]  

where \( ET_o \) is reference evapotranspiration (mm day\(^{-1}\)), \( \Delta \) is the slope of the vapour pressure curve (kPa \(^{\circ}\)C\(^{-1}\)), \( \gamma \) is the psychrometric constant (kPa \(^{\circ}\)C\(^{-1}\)), \( R_s \) is solar radiation (MJ m\(^{-2}\) day\(^{-1}\)) and constant 2.45 is latent heat of vaporization at approximately 20 \(^{\circ}\)C.

**Hargreaves-Samani model**

The Hargreaves-Samani model is a representative version of one of the older evapotranspiration models (Hargreaves and Allen, 2003). The model used in this study has similar conceptual versions (Hargreaves and Samani, 1985), which intend to be computationally simple and applicable to a variety of climates using only commonly available meteorological data. The creation of the Hargreaves-Samani method was intended to simplify the previous version of Hargreaves (1975) further by using only air temperature and extraterrestrial radiation (Ra) as a substitute for measured sunshine or radiation data (Hargreaves and Allen, 2003). This model was later adopted for use by the FAO for areas where air temperature is the only available variable (Allen et al. 1998,
Hargreaves and Allen, 2003). The form of the Hargreaves-Samani equation presented in FAO-56 by Allen et al. (1998) is:

$$ET_o = 0.0023 \times (T_{\text{max}} - T_{\text{min}})^{0.5} (T_{\text{mean}} + 17.8) R_a$$

(11)

where $ET_o$ is reference evapotranspiration (mm day$^{-1}$); $T_{\text{mean}}$ is the daily mean air temperature (°C); $T_{\text{max}}$ is the daily maximum air temperature (°C); $T_{\text{min}}$ is the daily minimum air temperature (°C); $R_a$ is the extraterrestrial radiation (mm day$^{-1}$) ($R_a$ in mm day$^{-1}$ = $R_a$ in MJ m$^{-2}$ day$^{-1}$/2.45).

2-7 Statistical analysis

$ET_o$ was measured with the lysimeter and computed through various methods as defined in the previous section. Both the measured $ET_o$ and calculated values were then compared using simple regression analysis and a series of statistics proposed by Willmott (1982). The Root Mean Square Error (RMSE; mm day$^{-1}$) was calculated as:

$$\text{RMSE} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (P_i - O_i)^2}$$

(12)

where N is the number of observations; $P_i$ is estimated or calculated $ET_o$ (mm day$^{-1}$); $O_i$ is $ET_o$ values observed with the lysimeter (mm day$^{-1}$). The mean square error expressed as a percentage of the mean values of $ET_o$ measured in the lysimeter ($O_{\text{avg}}$) was used as a measure of relative error (RelRMSE = RMSE/$O_{\text{avg}}$) from April 2004 to March 2005 for 333 observations (Table 2). The index of agreement ($d$) was also used as a relative measure of the difference among variables, defined as:

$$d = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (P_i - O_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} [(P_i - O_{\text{avg}}) + (O_i - O_{\text{avg}})]^2}$$

(13)

where $O_{\text{avg}}$ is the mean value of the observed variable for the given study periods (entire year, high evaporative demand period, low evaporative demand period). Perfect agreement would exist between $P_i$ and $O_i$ if $d = 1.$

### Table 2: Comparison of the measured and calculated daily $ET_o$ for the entire year.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>$P_{\text{avg}}$ (mm day$^{-1}$)</th>
<th>$O_{\text{avg}}$ (mm day$^{-1}$)</th>
<th>$A$</th>
<th>$B$</th>
<th>RMSE (mm day$^{-1}$)</th>
<th>RelRMSE (%)</th>
<th>$R$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FAO-56 Penman-Monteith</td>
<td>73.14</td>
<td>72.14</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAO-24 Blaney-Criddle</td>
<td>80.21</td>
<td>79.24</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAO-24 Blaney-Criddle</td>
<td>71.54</td>
<td>70.46</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>0.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hargreaves-Samani</td>
<td>49.46</td>
<td>48.49</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regression analysis of the calculated values over those measured in the lysimeter (7.15 mm day$^{-1}$); A: ordinate at the origin; B: regression coefficient; R: coefficient of regression; RMSE: root mean squared error; RelRMSE: relative error; d: index of agreement.
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Evaluation of ET₀ estimation methods during the entire year

Daily ET₀ values measured in the lysimeter were compared with the calculated values obtained from the various equations used in this study. This comparison was conducted for 333 observations, starting in April 2004 and ending in March 2005. The result of simple regression analysis, RMSE and index of agreement between the values calculated by various methods and lysimeter measurements are shown in Table 2.

For statistical analysis, it was assumed that the best methods were those that had the lowest RMSE, the highest R and the highest d. The methods were ranked from the best to the worst as follows. The FAO-24 Radiation method provided the best performance with a RMSE of 1.63 mm day⁻¹, equivalent to a relative error of 23.14 %, a coefficient of regression (R) equal to 0.79 and a d value of 0.78. Next to that equation, the best performance was shown by the Penman-Kimberly 1996, which had RMSE value of 1.94 mm day⁻¹, corresponding to a relative error of approximately 28% and a coefficient of regression equal to 0.78. The FAO-56 Penman–Monteith method, ranked as the third one, again presenting underestimation, with a RMSE of 2.27 mm day⁻¹, equivalent to a relative error close to 32%. The index of agreement of the method was 0.63. The Hargreaves-Samani method underestimated lysimeter measurements, with the slope of the straight regression line being 0.62 and noticeably coinciding with the intercept; but, a high value of RMSE (2.48 mm day⁻¹) and an index of agreement equal to 0.60 indicated the unsatisfactory performance of the method. The FAO-24 Blaney-Criddle method, too, showed underestimation with a slope of 0.61 for the regression line. The respective coefficient of regression was 0.74, but, a RMSE value as high as 2.43 and a relative error of approximately 35% indicated the unacceptability of the results of the model. The Makkink method was the one that demonstrated the worst performance due to the significant underestimations, with RMSE of 3.87 mm day⁻¹, equivalent to a relative error of about 55% and the lowest d index of 0.26. Figure 2 shows graphs of the regressions of the six methods. The intercept and the slope of each regression line are also shown for comparing the measured and the estimated values.

Evaluation of ET₀ estimation methods during the periods of high and low evaporative demands

The relationship between the lysimeter measurements and the calculated values obtained from different methods for estimating daily ET₀ was also evaluated during two different periods of the year: one for high evaporative demand between the months of April and September 2004, and the other between October 2004 and March 2005 (s 3 and 4).

These two periods of the year were separated to determine the best equation for each period. Table 3 shows the results of comparing the six evaluated methods of calculation with lysimeter measurements in the period from April to September 2004. The calculated values were taken as dependent variables and the lysimeter measurements as the independent variable.

The FAO-24 Radiation equation showed its superiority over the other methods studied, with a low RMSE value (1.86 mm day⁻¹), equivalent to a relative error (ReRMSE) of approximately 22 %. Besides, its index of agreement was over 0.41, the highest value among all the methods evaluated. The FAO-24 Blaney-Criddle method, too, showed underestimation with a slope of 0.61 for the regression line. The respective coefficient of regression was 0.74, but, a RMSE value as high as 2.43 and a relative error of
Figure 2. Comparison between ET$_o$ values measured in the lysimeter and those calculated, for the six methods during the entire year.

index of agreement of 24.8% and 0.42, respectively. Based on similar criteria, the remaining equations were ranked as follows: FAO-56 Penman–Monteith, FAO-24 Blaney-Criddle, Hargreaves-Samani and Makkink methods (Table 3).

Similarly all equations showed underestimation. Besides, based on the RMSE of 4.69 mm day$^{-1}$ and index of agreement equal to 0.06, Makkink method can not be recommended at all. In all cases, the coefficient of regression (R) decreased with regard to the comparison carried out for the whole year, due to an increase in dispersion. The same thing happened in a similar study conducted in Cordoba (Mantovani, 1993), when dividing the year into three periods of high, medium, and low evaporative demand. Figure 3 shows graphically the relationship between the measurements made on the lysimeter and the six ET$_o$ methods of calculation in the period of high evaporative demand. The FAO-24 Radiation method (Fig. 3d) generated an underestimation for values between 6.6 and 10 mm day$^{-1}$. For values less than 6 mm day$^{-1}$ the overestimation was more. In the Penman–Kimberly 1996 method (Fig. 3b), a similar trend was seen. Figure 3a shows the regression line of the calculated values by
### Table 3. Average daily $\text{ET}_o$ in the period of high evaporative demand (from April to September 2004).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>$\text{P}_{\text{avg}}$ (mm day$^{-1}$)</th>
<th>$\text{P}<em>{\text{avg}}/\text{O}</em>{\text{avg}}$ (%)</th>
<th>$\text{ET}<em>{o,\text{Est}} = A + B \times \text{ET}</em>{o,\text{lys}}$</th>
<th>RMSE (mm day$^{-1}$)</th>
<th>RelRMSE (%)</th>
<th>d</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FAO-56 Penman-Monteith</td>
<td>6.15</td>
<td>71.72</td>
<td>3.04, 0.36, 0.49</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>31.12</td>
<td>0.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAO-24 Radiation</td>
<td>7.14</td>
<td>83.27</td>
<td>3.81, 0.39, 0.44</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>21.79</td>
<td>0.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAO-24 Blaney-Criddle</td>
<td>6.08</td>
<td>70.91</td>
<td>1.86, 0.49, 0.46</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>32.55</td>
<td>0.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makkink</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>46.99</td>
<td>2.06, 0.23, 0.38</td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td>54.69</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hargreaves-Samani</td>
<td>5.99</td>
<td>69.91</td>
<td>2.53, 0.40, 0.43</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>33.68</td>
<td>0.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Penman-Kimberly 1996</td>
<td>6.82</td>
<td>74.14</td>
<td>2.52, 0.50, 0.51</td>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>24.85</td>
<td>0.42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regression analysis of the calculated values over those measured in the lysimeter. Number of observations: 181; $\text{P}_{\text{avg}}$: mean of the values calculated by various methods; $\text{O}_{\text{avg}}$: mean of the values measured in the lysimeter (8.57 mm day$^{-1}$); A: ordinate at the origin; B: regression coefficient; R: coefficient of regression; RMSE: root mean squared error; RelRMSE: relative error; d: index of agreement.

### Table 4. Average daily $\text{ET}_o$ in the period of low evaporative demand (from October 2004 to March 2005).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>$\text{P}_{\text{avg}}$ (mm day$^{-1}$)</th>
<th>$\text{P}<em>{\text{avg}}/\text{O}</em>{\text{avg}}$ (%)</th>
<th>$\text{ET}<em>{o,\text{Est}} = A + B \times \text{ET}</em>{o,\text{lys}}$</th>
<th>RMSE (mm day$^{-1}$)</th>
<th>RelRMSE (%)</th>
<th>d</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FAO-56 Penman-Monteith</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>75.73</td>
<td>1.92, 0.39, 0.34</td>
<td>1.70</td>
<td>32.61</td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAO-24 Radiation</td>
<td>4.82</td>
<td>91.76</td>
<td>2.41, 0.46, 0.37</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>24.74</td>
<td>0.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAO-24 Blaney-Criddle</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>72.61</td>
<td>1.86, 0.37, 0.28</td>
<td>1.92</td>
<td>36.60</td>
<td>0.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makkink</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>54.14</td>
<td>1.38, 0.28, 0.32</td>
<td>2.59</td>
<td>49.42</td>
<td>0.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hargreaves-Samani</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>68.30</td>
<td>1.78, 0.34, 0.28</td>
<td>2.04</td>
<td>38.93</td>
<td>0.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Penman-Kimberly 1996</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>74.14</td>
<td>1.77, 0.40, 0.34</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td>32.06</td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regression analysis of the calculated values over those measured in the lysimeter. Number of observations: 152; $\text{P}_{\text{avg}}$: mean of the values calculated by various methods; $\text{O}_{\text{avg}}$: mean of the values measured in the lysimeter (5.25 mm day$^{-1}$); A: ordinate at the origin; B: regression coefficient; R: coefficient of regression; RMSE: root mean squared error; RelRMSE: relative error; d: index of agreement.
Figure 3. Comparison between \( ET_o \) values measured in the lysimeter and those calculated, for the six methods in the period of April to September, 2004.

The FAO-56 Penman–Monteith method versus lysimetric measurements.

Table 4 shows the result of the evaluation of these same methods for calculating the average daily \( ET_o \) with lysimeter measurements in the period of low evaporative demand during October 2004 to March 2005 that the experimental work lasted. The various calculation methods were taken as independent variables and the lysimeter measurements as dependent variable.

The best performance corresponded to the FAO-24 Radiation method. It presented the lowest RMSE value (1.30 mm day\(^{-1}\)) and the highest index of agreement equal to 0.46. Also, the Penman–Kimberly 1996 and FAO-56 Penman–Monteith methods ranked as the second and the third equations, respectively (Table 4 for details). Once again the Makkink method performed the worst in this period, due to significant underestimations, with a RMSE value of 2.59 mm day\(^{-1}\), equivalent to a relative error of over 49%.

Similarly in low evaporative demand, the values of regression coefficients were low due to increased dispersion.

Figure 4 presents the graphs where the measurements conducted in the lysimeter are compared to the six methods of calculation in the period of low evaporative demand. The FAO-24 Radiation method (Fig. 4d) underestimated the values of \( ET_o \) between 4.5 and 7.5 mm day\(^{-1}\) and overestimated.
Figure 4. Comparison between ET\textsubscript{o} values measured in the lysimeter and those calculated, for the six methods in the period of October, 2004 to March, 2005.

them below 4.5 mm day\textsuperscript{-1}. The FAO-56 Penman–Monteith method (Fig. 4a) overestimated below values of approximately 3 mm day\textsuperscript{-1} and underestimated above 3.2 mm day\textsuperscript{-1}. The Penman–Kimberly 1996 method (Fig. 4b) overestimated for values less than about 3 mm day\textsuperscript{-1} and above this value it underestimated lysimeter measurements. The results of evaluating the six methods studied demonstrate the superiority of the FAO-24 Radiation method over the others in the study area. The results do not agree with a similar study performed by Lopez-Urrea \textit{et al.} (2006) carried out in semiarid climate of Albacete, Spain, in which the FAO-56 Penman–Monteith equation turned out to be the most accurate method in both low and high evaporative demand periods of the year. This might be because of differences in lysimetric measurements error and local climatic conditions. Several studies have shown that the Penman-Kimberly method performs very well in semi-arid and arid regions, where there is considerable sensible heat advection, because the method incorporates a region-specific wind-function (Ervin and Koski, 1997; Wright 1982; Jensen \textit{et al.}, 1990). As the results show, there are almost large deviations (lysimeter
ET<sub>o</sub> vs. calculated ET<sub>o</sub>) compared to other studies. This could be attributed to the dry climate of the region in which advective transport added energy to increase the ET<sub>o</sub> in the reference grass plot.

**CONCLUSION**

Six methods of calculating ET<sub>o</sub> including FAO-56 Penman–Monteith, Penman-Kimberly 1996, FAO-24 Blaney–Criddle, FAO-24 Radiation, Makkink, and Hargreaves-Samani were assessed during three different time periods in Kerman region. For the entire year period, FAO-24 Radiation was the best method for calculating daily ET<sub>o</sub>, when compared to the lysimeter measurements. During the high evaporative demand period, the FAO-24 Radiation method showed the best performance, although it mostly underestimated the ET<sub>o</sub> values. Finally, during the low evaporative demand period, again, the FAO-24 Radiation turned out as the best method when compared with the lysimeter measurements. Among these six methods, FAO-24 Blaney–Criddle, Hargreaves-Samani, and Makkink ranked as the last three, of which Makkink cannot be recommended in this region due to its poor performance. The results of this research can be recommended for semiarid environments outside the ambit where the experiment was conducted for irrigation scheduling, selection of cropping pattern, optimum allocation of water resources, and efficient use of water.

**REFERENCES**


ایران، تناهی لاپیسمتر عمیقاتی وزنی-الکترونیکی کشور محاسبه تبخیر تعرق روزانه طی ماه فروردین 1383 تا اردیبهشت 1384 در سه دوره مختلف (کل سال، دوره تابستان تبخیر و دوره تابستان بیخیره کم) مورد استفاده قرار گرفت. خطای اندازه‌گیری معادل 1 کیلوگرم جرم آب 1/14 میلی متر آب در مزرعه بوده است. داده‌های هوشمندی مورد تابستان برای محاسبه تبخیر تعرق روزانه با گام زمانی 10 دقیقه ای از یک استفاده هوشمندی شده کار در مجاورت محل لاپیسمتر جمع آوری گردید. استفاده خود کار و لاپیسمتر در داخل مزرعه ای از چهار قرار داشتند. از داده‌های لاپیسمتر جهت ارزیابی 6 معادله تبخیر تعرق چمن شامل پنمن-مانیت بلوان-1999، بلانی-کیپنری-2001، ماکنیک، تشنیشی-2002 و هنگریز-سامانی استفاده شد. آماره‌های جذر مربعات میانگین خطا (RMSE) برای انجام تحلیل های آماری و مقایسه‌ها مورد استفاده قرار گرفت. نتایج نشان داد برای کل دوره سال، معادله دقیق این روش بوده است. در دوره تابستان تبخیری RMSE تابی به با داشت 1/63 mmd<sup>1</sup> میزان معادله FAO-24 زیاد، معادله FAO-24 تابی با مقادیر RMSE = 1/68 mmd<sup>1</sup> و 1/45 0 می‌باشد. همچنین در طی دوره تابستان تبخیری کم (شهریور 1383 تا اردیبهشت 1384) نیز همین معادله FAO-24 در مقایسه با سایر معادلات با داشتن آماره‌ای 1/3 mmd<sup>1</sup> و 1/64 RMSE = 1/63 mmd<sup>1</sup> و 1/46 در مقایسه با سایر روشهای برتری داشته است. در هر سه مقطع زمانی، معادله ماکنیک عاملی که ضعیف داشته و برای این منطقه قابل توصیه نیست.